

POPULATION TODAY

Vol. 17, No. 2 February 1989

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The Olympics may be just a memory, but the stats remain. (See page 6.)



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FROM THE EDITOR'S DESK

Quickly identify: Alfonso VIII, 54-40 or Fight Too late, time's up. But confess — aren't such quizzes just a bit scolding? Is this a race to accumulate wisdom or little plastic wedges?

So much for the national romance with "cultural literacy." For us, the most valuable cultural lesson we recall from high school is not 54-40 or Fight (still a source of some confusion), but the "13 Deadly Fallacies."

What are they? Why, overgeneralizing, overextrapolating, making ad hominem attacks, rotating charges on one's accuser, misconstruing cause and effect, employing false analogies, appealing to revered authority, appealing to the rabble, trusting specious statistics, arguing in circles, mistaking arbitrary premises for fact, making issues black or white, and finding guilt by association.

The dangers of the Fatal 13

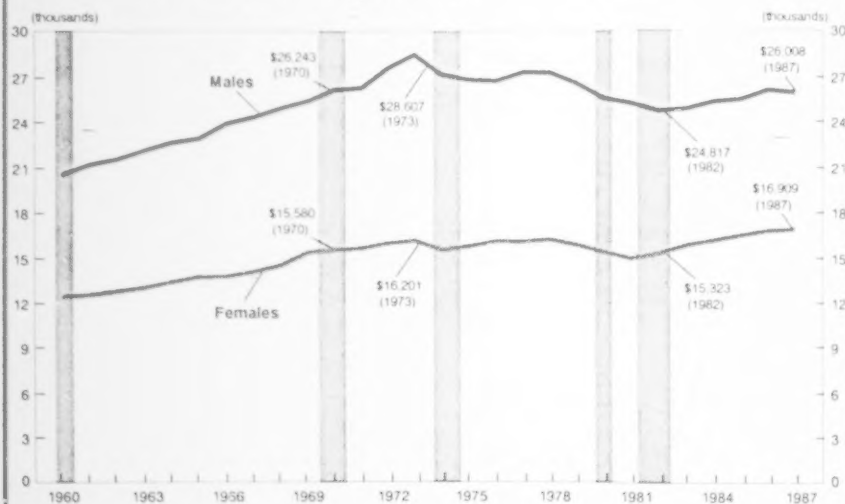
were vividly described to us by our American history teacher. She had discovered them in *Guides to Straight Thinking, with 13 Common Fallacies* (1956), a tart treatise on logic by social writer Stuart Chase. Chase's skepticism when faced with a statistic is especially salutary: Who sez so? How do they know? Does the number make sense? What's missing? Did somebody conveniently change the scale or baseline in the middle of the argument? Are we fussing over a meaningless "magic number" ("The Dow reached 2300...")?

Our teacher's point was that it's wise to keep the Fatal 13 in mind when studying American history. But they are equally applicable to the study of demography or any subject under the sun. Sometimes it's just as important to try to learn how to think as learn things to think about.

— Art Haupt

SPEAKING GRAPHICALLY

The Male-Female Wage Gap



The figures above show median earnings of year-round, full-time workers by sex in the U.S., given in 1987 dollars; the shaded areas are recessions. Interestingly, in modern times the male-female income disparity was greatest in 1973 (57 cents for every dollar), and since 1982 females have outpaced males in terms of increase in real earnings.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, "Money Income and Poverty Status in the United States 1987," *Current Population Reports*, P-60, No. 161.

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Another Winter for the Homeless

Although much has been written about the homeless, and polls show increased public concern, the people themselves remain a shadowy and amorphous U.S. subpopulation. The very numbers continue in dispute, pegged at anywhere from 300,000 (the Reagan Administration) to 3 million (homeless activist Mitch Snyder).

Most recently, the Urban Institute has produced a nationally representative survey of the homeless, the most detailed of its kind. Taken in 1977, it estimates that there were about 229,000 homeless persons who used services for the homeless in cities with 100,000 or more population during a given seven-day period. The study was conducted under contract with the Food and Nutrition Service of the U.S. Dept. of Agriculture. Its principal purpose was to evaluate the 1986 law under which food stamps may be used by homeless persons to obtain prepared meals supplied by a nonprofit provider. It was prepared by Martha R. Burt and Barbara E. Cohen.

Conducted in winter 1987, the study's survey interviewed 1,846 homeless people in 20 cities. While the study's focus was primarily on food provision, the survey of the homeless provides an unprecedentedly detailed demographic profile of this disadvantaged segment of the U.S. population.

Some of the characteristics measured are summarized in the table on the following page. As can be seen, a significant proportion of the homeless work; they are not eating well, many (but far from a majority) report a history of mental hospitalization or treatment for chemical dependency.

Methodology

Just how is a poll of the homeless conducted? The Urban Institute survey designated a sample of 1,800 respondents. Out of the 182 U.S. cities of 100,000 or more, comprising 51 percent of the national population, they selected 20 cities. The researchers then identified all providers of meals or shelter in those cities (including soup kitchens, homeless shelters, battered women's shelters, and hotels that



Most of the homeless in the U.S. do not have histories of either institutionalization or substance abuse.

accept welfare vouchers). There are about 3,000 overall. A subcontractor supervising the data collection selected 400 of these and interviewed the providers, as well as the homeless themselves. Ultimately, interviews were conducted with 1,704 service users and 142 nonusers.

The nonusers—those not using services—were interviewed wherever they could be found, e.g., in bus stations, culverts, etc. Their conditions varied somewhat from the service-

from mental depression to nutrition. The study warns against "generalizing from New York's homeless to those homeless elsewhere in the country."

S-Night Coming

Meanwhile, a survey of the governments of 27 major cities conducted by the U.S. Conference of Mayors elicited reports that requests for emergency shelter increased 13 percent during 1988, an average of 19 percent of all shelter requests went unmet.

The mayors' survey found single men comprising 49 percent of the homeless; single women, 13 percent; families with children, 34 percent; and unaccompanied youth, 5 percent. The consensus of the surveys was that persons considered severely mentally ill account for one-quarter of the homeless population, and substance abusers, one-third.

The results of the Urban Institute survey suggest that the homeless are a varied population. They are not a simple result of deinstitutionalizing the mentally ill, nor are they all unemployable drifters from the fringes of society.

Because of the difficulty of gathering statistics in this field, the numbers are likely to continue in dispute for some time. The ultimate authoritative figures will likely come out of S-Night, the "shelter and street night" operation of the 1990 Census. On that night from 6 p.m. till midnight, enumerators will

The study
estimated 229,000
homeless in
20 cities

using population, and were generally worse, that is, they had been unemployed longer, consumed a poorer diet, and averaged only one meal a day, rather than two.

As a result of selecting the boroughs of Manhattan and Queens as interview sites, some 17 percent of the sample was interviewed in New York City. When compared against the rest of the interviewees, the homeless of New York are worse off in many categories.

Winter of Homeless

Continued from preceding page

sweep through shelters, flophouses, bus stations, and all-night movie theaters. From 2 a.m. to 4 a.m. street congregating places of the homeless – places identified in precensus checks – will be canvassed. They will politely interview people as to whether they have a home. Those answering no will be counted then and there (those answering yes will presumably be accounted for on April 1, 1990 – Census Day). But the benchmark data coming out of S-Night will provide valuable information for national and local planners, as well as finally give the country a more accurate picture of the homeless problem.

—A.H.

Composition of Homeless Persons Who Were Service Users

Composition

Single or unattached adults	77 percent
Adults with children	8 percent
Children	15 percent

Single or household

Single persons	
males	75 percent
females	8 percent
Families with children present	
female-headed	8 percent
other (two-parent or male-headed)	2 percent
Other household type	6 percent

Characteristic (age 18 or over)

Male	81 percent
White non-Hispanic	46 percent
Black	41 percent
Hispanic	10 percent
Other	3 percent

Receiving income from work

Males	25 percent
Females	18 percent

History

Mental hospitalization	19 percent
In-patient treatment for chemical dependency	33 percent
Jail for five or more days	52 percent
State or federal prison	24 percent

Usual meals per day reported

Less than one	7 percent
One	30 percent
Two	38 percent
Three	20 percent
Four	4 percent
More than four	1 percent

Median time spent homeless

10 months

Source: *Feeding the Homeless: Does the Prepared Meals Provision Help?* Urban Institute Project Report, Washington D.C.: Urban Institute, Oct. 31, 1988.

AIDS Worldwide

The 59,229 AIDS cases worldwide reported to the World Health Organization in 1988 were almost double the 1987 number. WHO announced that governments have registered 132,977 cases, up from the cumulative total figure of 73,601 cases reported by 129 countries through 1987.

WHO officials emphasize that these are very incomplete figures. They estimate 300,000 to 350,000 people have acquired immune deficiency syndrome, while another 5-10 million are infected with the HIV virus. Assuming only 25 percent of HIV-infected people in 1987 will become AIDS cases, it is believed that all those infected will develop the disease. WHO projects more than a million cases by 1992. Another rule-of-thumb is that for each AIDS case, there are 3 to 5 cases of AIDS-related complex (ARC).

America's Centers for Disease Control (CDC) reported 32,399 AIDS cases in 1988 in the U.S. for a cumulative case total since June 1981 of 82,406 cases. There were 20,963 AIDS cases reported from Jan. 1 to Dec. 26, 1987. CDC officials believe there is at least 10 percent underreporting, and the number of AIDS cases is most probably higher. The cumulative 1981-1988 case total includes 1,341 children from birth to 13, 591 new cases through Dec. 24, 1988.

U.S. Mortality Figures

The National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS) has started to report deaths from AIDS for 1987, after WHO and national revisions and instructions on causes of death and completing death certificates. The NCHS provisional figure for AIDS mortality in 1987 is 13,130. The CDC received reports of 9,676 deaths due to AIDS in 1986 – again, this figure is believed to be a 10-30 percent underestimation. The CDC reports known deaths, recognized as underreported, at 10,911 from Jan. 1 to Dec. 26, 1988, with a cumulative total since 1981 of 46,134 deaths.

AIDS is the ninth leading cause of death of children 1 to 4, and the seventh cause of death for those 15 to 24. If current trends continue, AIDS will be

the fifth leading cause of death for those aged 1-24, according to a report by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.

—R.Y.

Population and Other Global Systems

Atop the perennial avalanche of frightening forecasts concerning the state of the global environment comes the authoritative third edition of *World Resources 1988-1989*.

Produced by the Washington-based World Resources Institute, this 372-page reference book endeavors to do nothing less than assess the world's natural resource base.

The text and some 50 tables consists of Sections I and II, which contain an executive summary overview and a review of world resources. Section III examines one world resource issue – degraded lands – while Section IV contains the data tables corresponding to the subject matter covered within the main text.

A wide panoply of issues are covered, from population and health to human settlements, to food and agriculture, forest and rangelands, wildlife and habitat, energy, freshwater, oceans and coasts, atmosphere and climate, global systems and cycles, and policies and institutions.

World Resources' plethora of tables and figures provide comparative time series for a wide spectrum of data, for example, minimum daily caloric requirements (1960-1990), adult literacy rates by gender, percent of population with access to safe drinking water and sanitation services (1980-1985), population and labor force projections (1960-2025), contraceptive prevalence and unmet needs (1961-1987), maternal and child health (1980-86). There are also tables and figures with data not ordinarily found – levels of particulate matter in the air of 41 cities around the world, for example.

Continued on page 10

SURVEY REPORT

Japan

Japan's Ninth National Fertility Survey, conducted by the Ministry of Health and Welfare in 1987, reveals a continuing increase in the age at first marriage and in the proportion of unmarried women in the prime childbearing ages.

The survey also shows that Japanese couples feel that 2.6 is the ideal number of children to have, a figure that has not changed during the past decade.

A country of mountainous islands, Japan has a population one-half the size of the U.S.'s living on 1/25th of the land area.

The survey's findings are based on a sample of 70,297 currently married women under age 50. Mean age at first marriage is 24.2 years for women and 27.2 for men. An interesting differential in age at marriage is found between two types of marriage: love matches and arranged marriages. The age at marriage is significantly younger among love-match couples than among arranged marriage couples—0.9 years younger for women and 2.2 years for men.

These differences have widened in recent years. (Today about 25 percent of all marriages in Japan are arranged by parents, relatives, friends, or marriage-arranging services. The proportion of such arranged marriages has decreased from the 60 percent recorded in the late 1940s.)

The age difference between wife and husband is 1.6 times greater among arranged marriage couples than love-match couples. The average time period from "encounter" to marriage is 23.6 months for love matches and only 4.9 months for arranged marriages.

The survey also found that after 15-19 years of marriage a

couple's average number of children is 2.17. More than 90 percent of newly married couples have their first baby within five years of marriage. Women aged 35 and over tend to avoid pregnancy, even those who have no children. These trends have not changed in the last 10 years. The percentage of women pregnant before marriage has increased from only 10 percent in the marriage cohort of the early 1960s to 25 percent in the 1980s.

In Japan, the proportion of couples living with parents immediately after marriage decreased after World War II, however, the percentage seems to have leveled out at around 30 percent during the last two decades.

Generally, socioeconomic factors such as education, occupation, and income appear to have little impact on the level of Japanese fertility. A survey study done by the Institutes of Population Problems of Japan (IPP) confirms that socioeconomic factors explain only 6 percent of the variation in number of children ever born. Couples who live in rural areas and who live with or near parents tend to have more children than others. Also, wives who marry at relatively young ages have more children than women who are older at marriage.

The study indicates the total fertility rate (TFR) drop is largely attributable to an increase in the proportion of unmarried women in the younger childbearing ages, and to late marriage.

According to the IPP's statistical study, factors affecting the "ideal" size are the number of rooms available, whether the couple lives with or near parents, and the extent of their commitment to give their children a college education.

Contrary to Western percep-



Preference for boys has fallen.

tions, parental preference for boys has been diminishing in Japan. This trend is more pronounced in the recent survey than in the previous (1982) one. Among respondents who chose 2 children as ideal, for example, preference for 2 female babies (10 percent) exceeds that for 2 male babies (4 percent). Among those who chose 3 as ideal, 52 percent opted for 2 boys and 1 girl, while 1 boy and 2 girls was the choice of 46 percent. Some 1 percent wanted 3 girls, and 0.5 percent wanted 3 boys.

More than 65 percent of couples surveyed practiced contraception. Condoms are the most popular method (80 percent) throughout all age groups and all parities. The next most preferred methods are withdrawal (16 percent) and rhythm or periodic abstinence (14 percent). Sterilization accounts for only 7 percent (women and men combined), and just 4.6 percent use IUDs. The pill (1.4 percent) cannot legally be prescribed for contraceptive purposes in Japan, a government study having cited bad side effects.

Twenty-three percent of the women surveyed have experienced at least one abortion, with 1.5 the average number of abortions.

—M.Y.

DEMOGRAPHER'S PAGE

The 1988 Olympic Games: Who Really Won?

by Leon Bouvier and Donald Smith

The 1988 Summer Olympic Games are history.

For only the second time since 1896, when the modern Games began, a developing country served as host. From South Korea's point of view, the Games of last September were unquestionably a huge success. Nonetheless, controversies erupted – the drug issue, judges' diving calls, the behavior of a few athletes. A controversy of a different sort smoldered in the U.S., fanned by those who perceived a relative lack of success of some American entries, men's basketball, for example.

On the face of it, the USSR won and the U.S. finished third – 132 medals to 94 medals – with East Germany in between. But mere medal totals don't tell the whole story, and some smaller countries felt that, person for person, they had finished better than the media gave them credit for.

So, as in so many times in the past, the social scientists must come to the rescue. Which nation really won the 1988 Games? How well did the U.S. really fare in Seoul? To answer these questions, social scientists and demographers in particular can turn to their battery of statistical tools. For example:

The "Crude Medal Rate." When demographers measure fertility, the crude birth rate (births per 1,000 population) serves as a more meaningful indicator of differentials between nations than simply comparing total numbers of births. A similar measure – the "Crude Olympic Medal Rate (CMR)" – can be applied to the Games.

(Crude, of course, is the statistical

term meaning tabulated without being broken down into classes; though it carries a trace of its conventional connotations: coarse, primitive, elemental.)

Of the 156 Olympic participant countries, 43 received at least one medal. This analysis is, however, limited to those 19 nations that captured at least 10 medals.

The crude medal rate rankings are shown in Table 1. It should come as no surprise that the CMR leader was East Germany with an amazing 6.14 medals per million population. (Romania, the 1984 "winner" according to this ranking, scored a mere 2.37 medals per million this time around.) Or, to make a bizarre vital statistics comparison, last year the average person in East Germany had a higher probability of winning a Summer Olympics medal than dying from tuberculosis.

Far behind in second place was New Zealand with 3.94 medals per million population. More populous countries are farther back. China's rate, for example, (0.03) illustrates how hard it is for an extremely populous nation to achieve a high rate when compared to a moderately sized nation like East Germany.

The USSR, while first in the total number of medals won, ranked 11th according to this measure. Its crude medal rate, however, was only 0.46. The U.S., third in total medals, was at 14th a CMR tie with Canada. (In 1984, the U.S. tied for fifth with a CMR of 0.74.) To match East Germany's rate in 1988, the U.S. would have had to win 1,530 medals.

Is the crude medal rate too crude? It can be refined somewhat by weighting medals. We arbitrarily assigned 3 points for gold medals, 2 for silver, and 1 for bronze. If we rank the countries this way, East Germany also captured first honors under this measurement. Bulgaria ranked second followed by New Zealand. The U.S. came in 13th, and generally, the rank order is quite similar to the unweighted ranking observed in Table 1.

These two rates are superior to a simple medal count. In demography, crude rates are crude because they include the entire population in the denominator – not just the people "at risk." A "pure" demographic rate, on the other hand, should include in its denominator only those individuals capable of performing what is included in the numerator.

Table 1: Crude Medal Rate (per 1 million population)

Country	Total Medals	Population (millions)	Rate
East Germany	102	16.6	6.14
New Zealand	13	3.3	3.94
Bulgaria	35	9.0	3.89
Hungary	23	10.6	2.17
Sweden	11	8.4	1.31
Romania	24	23.0	1.04
Australia	14	16.5	0.85
South Korea	33	42.6	0.77
West Germany	40	61.2	0.65
Yugoslavia	12	23.6	0.51
USSR	132	286.0	0.46
Poland	16	38.0	0.42
Great Britain	24	57.1	0.42
United States	94	246.1	0.38
France	16	55.9	0.29
Italy	14	57.3	0.24
Japan	14	122.7	0.11
China	28	1087.0	0.03

The "General Medal Rate." In the general fertility rate (births per 1,000 women 15-44 years old), the numerator is the total number of births, but now the denominator is limited to those individuals (women of childbearing age) capable of performing what is included in the numerator. Similarly, not all people in a nation are capable of performing in the Olympic Games. So perhaps the most refined measure would be a "general Olympic medal rate," gauging how many medals were earned per 1,000 participants.

When countries' general Olympic rate is calculated, East Germany (again) comes out on top with a rate of 354 medals per 1,000 team members (see Table 2). The 288 East German participants received a total of 102 medals. Romania was a surprisingly close second with a rate of 320 per 1,000. The U.S. finished fifth with a general rate of 154.

The "Participation Rate." Of course, one variable in all this is the number of athletes a country sends in the first place, a variable which depends on many factors such as a nation's economic development, financial capacity, and commitment, or its geographical proximity to the Games site. In sum, the number of participants from any given country will vary independently of that country's size.

Developing an "Olympic Games participation rate" allows us to determine the commitment of a country to the Games as defined by the number of participants per million. Of the top 19 medal-winning nations, New Zealand had the highest participation rate (28.2 team members per million), followed by Sweden and Bulgaria. The U.S. ranked 16th, with 2.5, while the USSR and China brought up the rear. Obviously, population size is not related to participation in the Games.

Another interesting measure looks at the number of medals won relative to per capita GNP. The argument here is that the richer a nation, regardless of size, the easier time it will have organizing and training a team, as well

Table 3: Cost per Medal in Per Capita GNP

Country	Total medals	Per capita GNP (\$)	GNP dollars per medal
China	28	300	10.71
USSR	132	7,400	56.06
South Korea	33	2,370	71.82
Hungary	23	2,010	87.39
East Germany	102	9,800	96.08
Poland	16	2,070	129.38
Bulgaria	35	6,270	179.14
United States	94	17,500	186.17
Yugoslavia	12	2,300	191.67
Romania	24	5,140	214.17
West Germany	40	12,080	302.00
Great Britain	24	8,920	371.67
New Zealand	13	7,110	546.92
Italy	14	8,570	612.14
France	16	10,740	671.25
Australia	14	11,910	850.71
Japan	14	12,850	917.86
Sweden	11	13,170	1,197.27
Canada	10	14,100	1,410.00

as selecting and supporting the "best and brightest" among its athletic citizens. If we take a pragmatic view and argue that money helps win medals and that winning medals in turn fosters positive nationalistic pride by providing bragging rights, folk heroes, and international sports coverage, it seems fair to ask which country gets the biggest bang per dollar spent.

**Table 2: General Medal Rate
(per 1,000 participants)**

Country	Rate
East Germany	354
Romania	320
USSR	254
Bulgaria	181
United States	154
New Zealand	140
Hungary	105
Poland	105
West Germany	96
China	96
South Korea	71
Yugoslavia	71
Great Britain	65
Sweden	53
France	52
Japan	49
Australia	47
Italy	43
Canada	26

The "Cost per Medal Rate."

Measuring a country's "bang per buck" requires dividing its per capita GNP by the number of medals won. The clear value leader here is China, which despite its very low per capita GNP (\$300 as of 1986) was sixth overall in number of medals (See Table 3.) China "spent" \$10.71 per capita income for each medal won. The USSR gains second place. Its per capita GNP divided by its many medals comes out to only \$56.06 per medal. Host country South Korea, perhaps benefiting from home team advantage, finished third — \$71.82.

The U.S. in eighth place, spent \$186.17 per medal. Canada turns out to be the spendthrift of countries winning at least 10 medals; its 10 were won at a "cost" of \$1,410 per medal.

The Madison Avenue Nationalism Award goes to the nation that spent the most to hear its national anthem droned throughout the world — an honor accorded gold medalists. To qualify for this competition, a country must have earned at least five gold medals. France is the winner here — its per capita GNP divided by its gold medal tally results in a "cost" of \$2,148.

Continued on page 9

New State Estimates

The Census Bureau has released a preliminary set of state estimates which reflect some interesting shifts in the nation's growth patterns. The Industrial Midwest has recently undergone a period of mild demographic resurgence in the sense that it is no longer declining in population. And the Big Three of population growth, California, Florida, and Texas, are rapidly becoming the Big Two as Texas's growth dwindles.

The upturn in growth in Ohio, Michigan, and Indiana is hardly the result of any massive in-movement to those "Rust-belt" states; rather it reflects less outward movement than earlier in the decade. Overall, the Midwest grew by an annual average of 230,000 from 1985 to 1988, but its "natural increase" of births minus deaths was larger, about 390,000. The Midwest still loses population by migration, but fewer people are now leaving on a net basis.

Texas's drop, however, is rather stunning. In the early 1980s, the Lone Star State was increasing at a pace of half million per year. But, by 1988, the estimates suggest that growth may have come to a halt. Such a situation is almost certainly due to the depressed state of the energy industry. Similarly, West Virginia, a bellwether of the coal industry, is losing population at a relatively rapid pace.

Wyoming, which also has energy industry troubles, leads the loss column on a percentage basis, where there were 13 Wyomingites in 1985, in 1988 there were only about 12. Other states that lost significant numbers are North Dakota, Montana, and West Virginia.

Most of the "usual suspects" were in the gain column, headed by Nevada's 12.8 percent increase (beginning with a sub-1-million base).

The table at right details the state pattern of population shifts from 1985 to 1988. The Census Bureau will finalize these estimates in a report to be issued later this year. But when Michigan's population growth rate over three years almost equals Texas's—as was the case 1985-1988—it signals that U.S. population trends have experienced some sort of midcourse correction.

—C.H.

Estimates of the Resident Population of States: 1985 and 1988
(Numbers in thousands. Includes Armed Forces residing in each state)

Region and state	July 1, 1988	July 1, 1985	Change, 1985-88	
			number	percent
United States	245,807	238,736	7,071	3.0
Northeast	50,611	49,867	744	1.5
Midwest	59,894	59,201	693	1.2
South	84,878	81,877	3,001	3.7
West	50,424	47,791	2,633	5.5
Northeast				
Maine	1,206	1,164	42	3.6
New Hampshire	1,097	998	99	9.9
Vermont	556	535	21	3.9
Massachusetts	5,871	5,824	47	0.8
Rhode Island	995	967	28	2.9
Connecticut	3,241	3,176	66	2.1
New York	17,898	17,769	129	0.7
New Jersey	7,720	7,569	151	2.0
Pennsylvania	12,027	11,866	161	1.4
Midwest				
Ohio	10,872	10,748	124	1.2
Indiana	5,575	5,501	75	1.4
Illinois	11,544	11,540	4	—
Michigan	9,300	9,089	211	2.3
Wisconsin	4,858	4,776	82	1.7
Minnesota	4,306	4,191	115	2.7
Iowa	2,834	2,873	-39	-1.4
Missouri	5,139	5,037	102	2.0
North Dakota	663	685	-22	-3.2
South Dakota	715	708	7	0.9
Nebraska	1,601	1,605	-4	-0.3
Kansas	2,487	2,449	39	1.6
South				
Delaware	660	626	34	5.4
Maryland	4,644	4,392	252	5.7
District of Columbia	620	623	-3	-0.5
Virginia	5,996	5,705	291	5.1
West Virginia	1,884	1,936	-53	-2.7
North Carolina	6,526	6,258	268	4.3
South Carolina	3,493	3,334	160	4.8
Georgia	6,401	5,976	425	7.1
Florida	12,377	11,369	1,008	8.9
Kentucky	3,721	3,724	-4	-0.1
Tennessee	4,919	4,767	152	3.2
Alabama	4,127	4,022	105	2.6
Mississippi	2,627	2,614	13	0.5
Arkansas	2,422	2,360	62	2.6
Louisiana	4,420	4,484	-64	-1.4
Oklahoma	3,263	3,303	-40	-1.2
Texas	16,780	16,384	396	2.4
West				
Montana	804	825	-21	-2.6
Idaho	999	1,005	-6	-0.6
Wyoming	471	509	-39	-7.6
Colorado	3,290	3,232	57	1.8
New Mexico	1,510	1,450	59	4.1
Arizona	3,466	3,161	304	9.6
Utah	1,691	1,644	47	2.9
Nevada	1,060	939	120	12.8
Washington	4,619	4,407	212	4.8
Oregon	2,741	2,689	52	2.0
California	28,168	26,357	1,812	6.9
Alaska	513	522	-8	-1.6
Hawaii	1,093	1,050	43	4.0

Source: Census Bureau interim estimate

Demographers Page

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Great Britain is second with \$1,784. The U.S. finished fifth, spending \$486.11, while the USSR produced golds with a \$134.55 per capita expenditure.

Kenya and China, by contrast, each earned five gold medals, which comes out to \$60.00 of per capita GNP per gold—a very good value.

Admittedly none of these measures is perfect. Many factors are not considered, for example, all medals do not go to individuals. The U.S. women's basketball team received one gold medal, the East German swimmer, Kristin Otto, received six. Also, all countries did not necessarily participate in all sports. Some may have selected specific areas of strength. There were 31 sports in all, including two demonstration sports (women's judo and Taekwondo) and one exhibition sport (bowling) for which no medals were awarded. In attempting to determine a winner, all these factors would have to be considered.

What nation won the Olympic Games? The USSR garnered the most medals but East Germany was the clear overall winner according to just about every other kind of measure. How did the U.S. fare? It had the third highest number of medals but was only 14th on the crude rate and fifth in terms of general rate. If a country's participation in the Games is as important as winning, then New Zealand should be considered too.

The true correct answer is, properly, none. Unfortunately this Olympic truth is often forgotten in the rush to see the Games as a surrogate for the conflict and competition between nations. No nation won the 1988 Olympic Games or any other Olympic Games. Individuals or teams, competing as friendly adversaries, won. That, not international one-upmanship, is what the Olympics are supposed to be all about.

Reference

1. Leon F. Bouvier, "A Demographer Looks at the 1984 Olympic Games," *Population Today*, October 1984, pp. 6-7.

SOFTWARE

The Social Development

Center (SDC), Chicago, has announced its program of training workshops and technical services for 1989. SDC, a nonprofit organization, offers a full range of microcomputer training services, oriented primarily toward the needs of developing nations in Latin America, Africa, and Asia, which include workshops and seminars in Chicago and outside the United States.

From May to October 1989, the Center will hold a series of seminars in Chicago on the use of microcomputers in sample surveys, census taking, and research in population, health, and planning. Each of these seminars runs

for four weeks. Offered in either Spanish, English, or French, they are intended for persons who carry out or process surveys, national censuses, or research and evaluation projects. The workshops are oriented toward use of microcomputers for intermediate and moderately advanced statistical and demographic analysis. They assume that participants are good but not expert statisticians who have some familiarity with personal computers.

For further information, contact: Office of Training, Social Development Center, 1313 E. 60th St., Suite 145, Chicago, Ill. 60637; phone (312) 947-2010.

POPULATION UPDATE

Estimated United States Population:

As of November 1, 1988	247,031,000
As of November 1, 1987	244,754,000

The above estimates include armed forces overseas and are from U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, Series P 25, No. 1029.

Estimated World Population:

As of February 1989	5,180,000,000
Annual growth	89,000,000

Estimated by extrapolation from the mid 1988 population on PRB's *World Population Data Sheet*.

Latest Provisional Statistics for the U.S.: October 1988

Item	12 months ending with October					
	Number		Rate			
	1988	1987	1988	1987	1986	1985
Live births	3,899,000	3,801,000	15.9	15.7	15.5	15.8
Deaths	2,170,000	2,121,000	8.9	8.7	8.7	8.8
Natural increase	1,729,000	1,680,000	7.0	7.0	6.8	7.0
Marriages	2,379,000	2,421,000	9.7	10.0	10.0	10.2
Divorces	1,167,000	1,159,000	4.8	4.8	4.8	5.0
Infant deaths	38,600	37,700	10.0	9.9	10.5	10.5
Population base (in millions)			245.2	242.9	240.6	237.9

Note: Rates are given per 1,000 population, except for infant deaths, which are given per 1,000 live births.

Source: *Monthly Vital Statistics Report* (Vol. 37, No. 10) from the National Center for Health Statistics.

Population and Other Global Systems

Continued from page 4

"The effects of rapid population growth on natural resources and the environment are a critical concern, but the issue is complex," the study's authors write. "With an expanding economy, population growth can often be accommodated reasonably. On the other hand, in the absence of economic development, the needs of a rapidly growing population can contribute to the destruction or degradation of the very resource base upon which a country's development depends."

As the title implies, *World Resources 1988-1989*, previously an annual, is now published as a biennial. Each future edition will also focus on conditions and solutions to problems being tried in one region of the world, with Asia as the timely focus here.

This edition also marks a new linkage between the World Resources Institute and the International Institute for Environment and Development with the United Nations Environmental Programme, which will provide access to additional data sources, e.g., the Global Environment Monitoring System networks and increase cooperation with governmental and nongovernmental organizations worldwide.

To obtain a copy of *World Resources 1988-1989*, send \$16.95 plus \$2.00 shipping to WRI Publications, PO. Box 620, Holmes, Pa. 19043.

—D.D.

Choldin New PRB Visiting Scholar

Harvey M. Choldin has been named PRB's new Andrew W. Mellon Visiting Scholar for the 1989-1990 academic year.

Choldin is a professor of sociology at the University of Illinois—Urbana—Champaign and the author of numerous books and articles.

His work at PRB will focus on the role of the U.S. Office of Management and Budget (OMB), describing the federal statistical system and OMB's function within it.

TAKE A NUMBER

Utah Baby Bust?: Fertility in Utah has been making the news of late since the number of births in the state has been dropping. One article mistakenly claimed that this decrease in births was the first in the state's history. The total fertility rate (TFR) dropped from 3.2 lifetime births per woman in 1980 to 2.5 in 1987. But it's hardly the first fertility decline in the Beehive State. The TFR also decreased right after the 1970 Census only to return to the 1970 level in 1980. In fact, the TFR was also declining after 1960 (from a TFR of 4.2) but rose a bit in 1970. It makes one wonder if intercensal population estimates produce sufficiently reliable TFRs for states. Whether or not the current situation results from any declining influence of the Mormon Church, the depressed state of the energy-related economy, or the out-migration of those of childbearing age, we don't know. But it will be interesting to see if Utah's TFR once again takes a census-year rise.

Here and There as more birth rates for European countries are received, it is evident that

Italy really does have the world's lowest fertility at a TFR of 1.3 children per woman; previous record holder West Germany has risen to 1.4. News from China: China's TFR in 1987 was 2.49, up from 2.19 in 1984; minorities accounted for 8.0 percent of the population in 1987, partly a result of their exemption from the national family planning campaign and partly from re-registering some people formerly classified as Han to another group. As the New Year began, the U.S. population stood at 247 million, according to an early Census Bureau estimate based upon an estimated 3.9 million births, 2.2 million deaths, and net migration of 606,000 during 1988. In terms of population, the fastest growing Soviet SSR is the Asian republic of Tajik, which grew by 37 percent 1970-1985 and which is also the republic with the sparsest Communist Party membership (29 per 1,000 populations), according to the U.S. State Dept. and the Bureau of the Census. The population/party relationship correlates inversely across most of the USSR's republics.

—C.H.

ADDENDA

Little Pat on the Back



The above population clock is on temporary display at the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, D.C. It is based on PRB's figures, and if you scrutinize the label, you may just be able to see our source credit. That clock should be reading 5,192,752,281 right now.

CURRENT READINGS

PRB welcomes materials on population topics for possible inclusion in *Current Readings*. Publishers may address review copies to Book Review Editor, *POPULATION TODAY*, Population Reference Bureau, 777 14th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005.

PERSPECTIVES ON DEVELOPMENT AND POPULATION GROWTH IN THE THIRD WORLD

by Ozzie G. Simmons
New York, Plenum Press, 1988. 277 pages. \$32.50 cloth. ISBN 0-306-42941-1

This book is a readable, broad-brush review of various theories of Third World development and the ways in which population growth is affected by or affects development.

After a brief introductory chapter, the first two chapters review the evolution of development theory from the concept of "modernization" characterized by W. W. Rostow's *The Stages of Economic Growth: A Non-Communist Manifesto* to what the author perceives as the current stress on equity-oriented development. The author clearly feels that ideas on development have become better, both more realistic and more humane.

"Stages of growth" as a theory suffers from two basic flaws: 1) it is highly ethnocentric by assuming that the developing world would proceed along the same course as the developed one and 2) it fails to have any predictive, or planning, value because no threshold levels are specified. Current thinking stresses helping people where they live, i.e. an emphasis on agriculture and human resources.

These two chapters frame development theory nicely for non-economists, particularly its jargon, fads and improvements. The author does convey the impression that current thinking will last longer than the models it has replaced. However, given the amount we still do not know about the develop-

ment process, one might wonder whether a similar volume written 10 years from now might include "equity-oriented development" on the fad list.

The following two chapters offer a similar review of theories of population growth and its relationship to the development process. Again, the approach is broad-brush and more informative for non-demographers. The author reviews "demographic transition theory," and the work of J.C. Caldwell, K. Davis, J. Blake and J. Bongaarts, among others, as evolutionary stages of thought. He usefully points out parallels between development and population theory. For example, "demographic transition theory" is very similar to "stages of growth" and both theories suffer from the same flaws (noted above).

Sadly, this book is a posthumous testament to the author's many years of experience in the field and to his ultimate optimism that the world has made progress in understanding population and development. While neither economists nor demographers may find the book a sufficient relation of their side of the story, each side can learn something about the other. The book would also be useful to students and others who want an introduction to both sides.

— Nancy Yinger

TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

by 14 African and Asian journalists, and Ingvar Carlsson, Gro Harlem Brundtland, and Shridath S. Ramphal. London: PANOS Publications Ltd. Unpaginated. ISBN 1-870670-01-9

This book is the result of an interesting experiment. Fourteen independent African and Asian journalists were commissioned to prepare individual reports on Nordic foreign aid projects in their region. The donors selected the 14

projects, the London-based PANOS Institute picked the writers, and the Swedish International Development Authority funded the project.

The ostensible question at issue is the sustainability of the projects, but one common theme runs through the book: the grassroots reaction to the implementation of a foreign development project.

For the most part, the journalists are pragmatic about the average Third World resident living through the throes of great change — he or she is often described as unmotivated, poorly educated, and short-sighted. And many local bureaucrats are pictured as desk-bound, haughty, and incompetent. But while the book is clearly no whitewash of Third World societies, it freely criticizes the outside plans of the well-intentioned Nordic benefactors.

The unforeseen ramifications of the Mtera Dam in Central Tanzania is a case in point. The \$150 million project, funded in part by the Swedish International Development Authority, is by all accounts a success. Yet, the project left a trail of human problems: people who had to be moved from the dam basin felt improperly resettled, and the newly created lake site triggered an unanticipated immigration, which in turn caused soil erosion, deforestation, health problems, and tribal conflicts. Ironically, the Mtera Dam residents — much to their consternation — didn't share in the resulting electric power, which was earmarked for larger markets.

Towards Sustainable Development doesn't really tell us anything new. It does, however, remind the reader that Third World individuals can be whiplashed by foreign assistance, even if the benefactors are benign and the projects ultimately completed.

— Winthrop Carty

SPOTLIGHT

BENIN

Population (mid-1988 est.): 4.5 million
 Land area: 43,483 sq. miles
 Population density: 103 persons per sq. mile
 Births per 1,000 pop. (1987 est.): 51
 Deaths per 1,000 pop. (1987 est.): 19
 Rate of natural increase (1987 est.): 3.2 percent
 Total fertility rate (1985-86 est.): 7.1 children per woman
 Infant mortality rate (1987 est.): 110 infant deaths per 1,000 live births
 Life expectancy at birth (1987 est.): 47 years
 GNP per capita: US \$270
 Capital: Porto-Novo (political), Cotonou (economic)

by John F. May

Slightly smaller than Pennsylvania, the People's Republic of Benin is situated in the Gulf of Guinea on the West Coast of Africa (see map). It achieved independence from French rule in 1960, and until 1975 it was known as Dahomey.

Benin is a poor country, even by sub-Saharan standards, with a mostly agricultural economy that is currently plagued by adverse climatic conditions (notably flooding). Its fragile resource base was further weakened during the 1970s by the decision, taken in the context of a Marxist-Leninist policy change, to nationalize large sectors of the economy.

The negative effects of this transformation were compounded by the international depression of the early 1980s and have consequently led to a high public-sector deficit. Now, however, the Government of Benin wants to adopt a privatization policy together with a comprehensive structural adjustment program assisted by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank.

Against the backdrop of the present bleak economic picture, Benin's demographic structure and trends are com-



parable to the situation of many sub-Saharan countries. Two major sources provide basic demographic information: the latest Benin census, organized in 1979 (whose fertility data are weak), and the nationwide fertility survey, undertaken in 1982 under the auspices of the World Fertility Survey (WFS).

Since World War II, figures show a fairly rapid decline in mortality—although mortality rates, especially the infant mortality rate, remain high. The lack of any fertility decline has resulted in a youthful age structure and, in conjunction with mortality decline, a rise in the rate of natural increase, from 2.7 in 1978 to 3.2 in 1987. At current rates, the Beninese population would double in the next 22 years.

Fertility has even increased slightly with the improvement in health conditions and the loosening of traditional inhibiting factors such as breastfeeding and postpartum taboos, as has occurred elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa. The current rate of contraceptive prevalence (all methods) is estimated at 6 percent of women at risk. This is a fairly high contraceptive rate for an African francophone country,

but obviously can only have a limited restraining effect on fertility.

Until very recently, the Government of Benin considered the country's levels of fertility and natural increase to be satisfactory; its major population concerns were the high levels of morbidity and mortality. However, the acceleration of the population growth has led to increased demand for social services. This situation is further exacerbated by the large proportion of the urbanized population (more than one third of Benin's population lives in urban areas), in addition to higher expectations of the population for education and for jobs in the modern sector.

Given present economic conditions, the government is unable to satisfy the growing demand for social service provision and has become aware of the negative effects of rapid population growth on socioeconomic development. Discussions of population issues are now part of the governmental planning process. Nevertheless, this change in thinking has not yet gone farther than an attempt to integrate demographic variables into economic and social development planning.

In order to increase effectiveness, the Government of Benin is now planning a comprehensive national population policy as well as practical plans to implement it. New demographic data and analyses, including information regarding family building patterns, will be necessary during the course of this process. If successful, a national population policy could serve as a catalyst to redesign Benin's future development strategies.

John F. May, Demographer, is Coordinator of Francophone Programs at The Futures Group, Washington, D.C.